

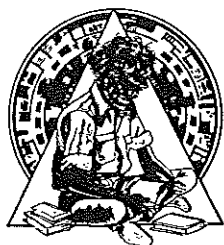
WORK PAPERS OF SIL - AAB

Series B Volume 3

**AN AUSTRALIAN CREOLE IN THE
NORTHERN TERRITORY: A DESCRIPTION
OF NGUKURR-BAMYILI DIALECTS (PART 1)**

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PREFACE

These Work Papers are being produced in two series by the Summer Institute of Linguistics, Australian Aborigines Branch, Inc. in order to make results of SIL research in Australia more widely available. Series A includes technical papers on linguistic or anthropological analysis and description, or on literacy research. Series B contains material suitable for a broader audience, including the lay audience for which it is often designed, such as language learning lessons and dictionaries.

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Because of the preliminary nature of most of the material to appear in the Work Papers, these volumes are being circulated on a limited basis. It is hoped that their contents will prove of interest to those concerned with linguistics in Australia, and that comment on their contents will be forthcoming from the readers. Papers should not be reproduced without the authors' consent, nor cited without due reference to their preliminary status.

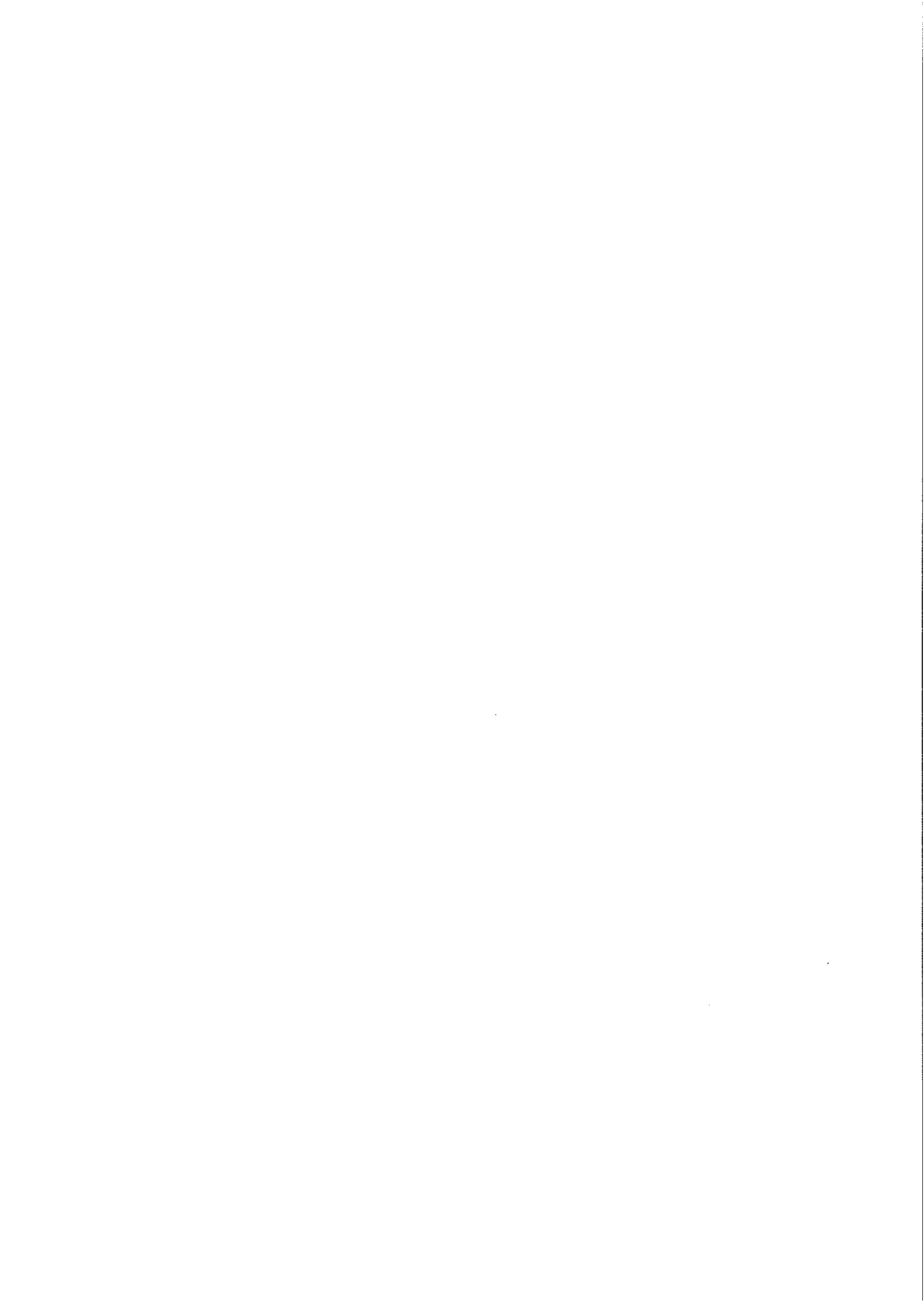
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INTRODUCTION TO
SERIES B VOLUME 3

The purpose of this paper is to make available for the layman a description of the creole language spoken in the Roper River area of the Northern Territory. It is written particularly with Europeans working in the area in mind. It has not been written as a technical paper for linguists, but it is hoped that linguists will find it useful in providing information on the language.

It should be noted that this volume (Part 1) does not contain a complete description of Creole. Intonation and rhythm, word formation, adverbs, conjunctions, questions and commands, complex sentences, and discourse structure are not discussed. It is planned that these sections will be described in a second volume (Part 2) in the future. (In addition, a basic dictionary is being published separately as *Work Papers of SIL-AAB*, Series B, Volume 4.) The sections contained in Part 1 are comprehensively, but not exhaustively, covered.

At several places in this paper the reader is referred to a discussion of a particular item at another location. When the reference is stated as being 'elsewhere', it means that the item will be discussed in Part 2. If the discussion is within Part 1, the chapter or section reference is given.

Examples occur frequently throughout the chapters dealing with Creole grammar. These examples are written in the Creole practical orthography as discussed in Chapter 3. In some situations an example of an unacceptable or ungrammatical construction is given. These examples are marked by a preceding asterisk (*).

This paper is based on some 27 months of fieldwork under the auspices of the Summer Institute of Linguistics since March 1973. Of this time approximately 60% has been spent at Ngukurr, 30% at Bamyili, and the remaining 10% elsewhere.

Without the help of many people this paper would not have been possible. I would like to thank the many Creole speakers who have shared their language with me, especially those who patiently worked with me in formal situations: Barnabas Roberts, Mordecai Skewthorpe, Andrew Joshua, Isaac Joshua, Charlie Johnson, Wallace Dennis, David Jentian, and Danny Jentian. Thanks are due to the late Lothar Jagst,

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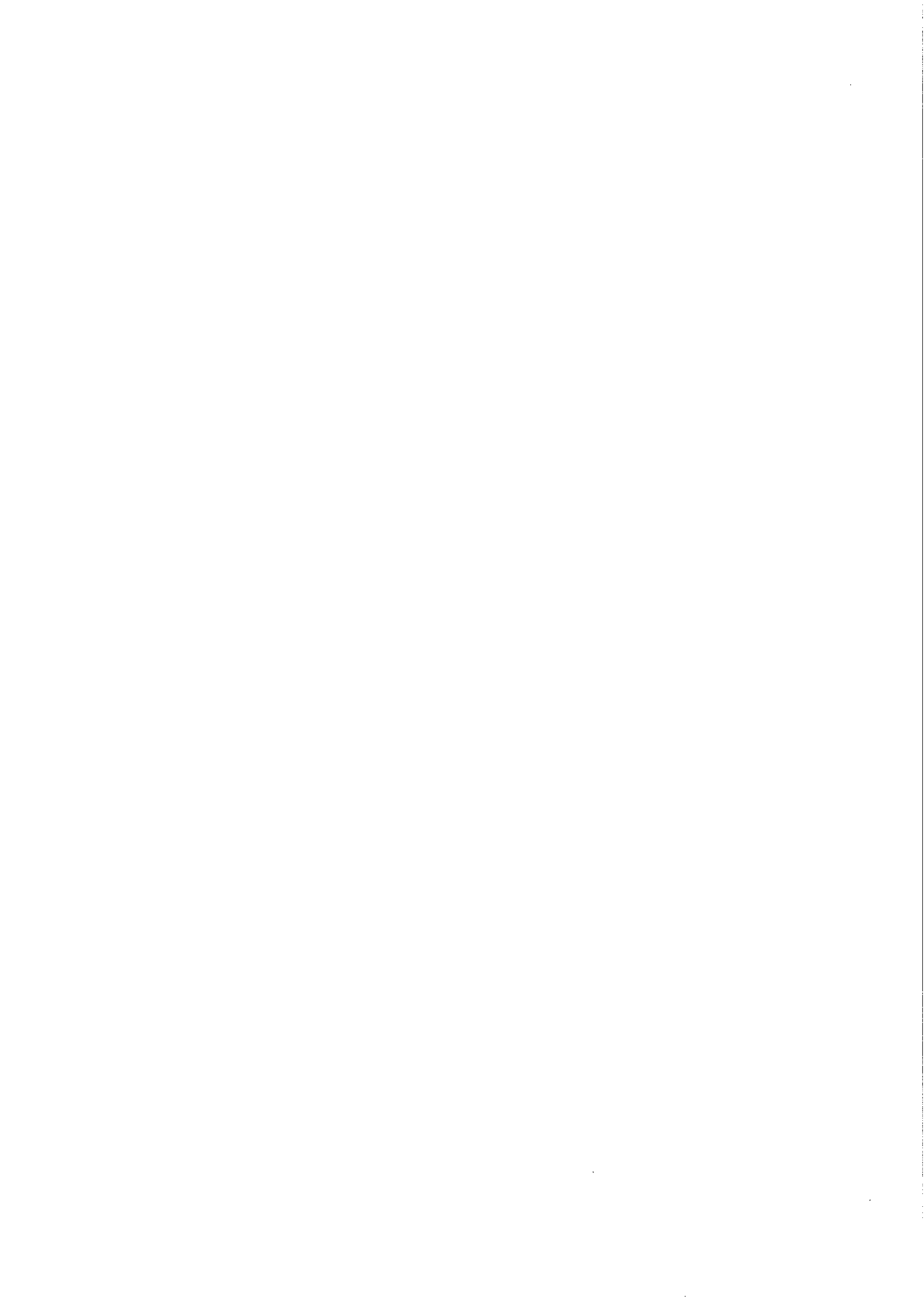
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Two main prerequisites for the establishment of a bilingual programme, in which initial literacy is taught in an Aboriginal language, are (1) a practical orthography or alphabet for the language and (2) available written materials from which to teach. The orthography, of necessity, must precede the written materials. O'Grady and Hale (1974:5), however, recommended that a finalized practical orthography should not be an indispensable condition or qualification of a bilingual programme.

For traditional Aboriginal languages, the development of an orthography, for the most part, merely awaits the phonemic analysis of the sound system. The analysis is pretty much straightforward. This does not mean that it may not be difficult nor have problems, but rather that such analysis rests upon a well developed theoretical and heuristic base.

When a phonemic analysis has been completed, a phonemic orthography is developed on a one symbol to one sound basis. Words are then spelled as they sound. Difficulties may arise due to dialect differences, differences between fast and slow speech, or grammatical variations. However, these are not insurmountable.

The development of an orthography for Creole, in many respects, is basically the same as for other Aboriginal languages. It differs, however, in that it is a continuum language.

Though linguists are attempting to do so, they have not yet developed an adequate theory of variation in language that can handle the analysis and description of creole continuui.

3.1 CRITERIA FOR AN ADEQUATE ORTHOGRAPHY

The development of a practical orthography for Creole is more complicated than the development of a traditional Aboriginal language orthography. The basic criteria for an adequate orthography, however, are the same. Five basic criteria (Smalley 1963a:34) listed in order of importance are:

1. Maximum motivation for the learner, and acceptance by his society and controlling groups such as the government. Occasionally maximum motivation for the learner conflicts with government acceptance, but usually the learner wants most what is considered standard in the area.
2. Maximum representation of speech. The fullest, most adequate representation of the actual spoken language is, by and large, the ideal. There are a few points of exception here . . .

3. Maximum ease of learning. Many writing systems have failed . . . because they were essentially too complicated for a learner.
4. Maximum transfer. Here we refer to the fact that certain of the alphabet or other written symbols will, when learned, be applicable to the more rapid learning of the trade or colonial languages in the area. Thus, if a new learner learns a certain pronunciation of a certain symbol in his own native language, and if he can use that same pronunciation with the same symbol in the trade or national languages, this is a case of transfer. If, however, the same symbol is used with different value in the other writing system, that transfer cannot be made.
5. Maximum ease of reproduction. Typing and printing facilities are a consideration, although they are not of first importance.

3.2 ETYMOLOGICAL VS. PHONEMIC ORTHOGRAPHY

There are two types of orthographic systems that could be developed for Creole. One is an etymological orthography in which words are spelt in Creole as they are spelt in the languages from which they are borrowed. The other is a phonemic orthography designed to fit the sound system of Creole itself. The latter type is being developed for Creole at Ngukurr and Bamyili.

3.2.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of an Etymological Orthography

The advantage of an etymological orthography is that people who are literate in English can, it seems, very easily read and write Creole - especially Europeans.

The disadvantages, however, are:

1. All the problems inherent in learning to read English because of the way English is spelled would not only be carried over into Creole but additional problems would be added as well. In English we do not use the principle of one symbol-one sound relationship: [f] may be life, rough, half, cuff, graph. Then add for Creole such things as: [g] as in /grajim/ 'dig' being scratch-him, as in /gajim/ 'get' being catch-him, as in /gidim/ 'get' being get-him. (See Appendix 3.1 at the end of this chapter for a listing of English sounds and their corresponding symbols.)

2. Not only would the problems of reading English be carried over, but the problems of learning to spell would also be carried over: 'to cling to the etymological principle would naturally offer very little practical advantage. One cannot expect the users of a language only to be able to spell correctly with the use of a dictionary' (Voorhoeve 1963:69).

3. Advocates of an etymological orthography for dialects of English may be on to a good thing. Flint (1968:8) notes that 'variation in intelligibility [of Aboriginal English] is due more to phonological than to lexical and grammatical differences'. Dutton (1969:20) likewise notes that Palm Island 'Aboriginal English has the grammatical and lexical structure (except for minor differences . . .) of standard Australian English. Phonologically, however, it has characteristic features which affect its intelligibility for the non-Aboriginal Australian listener'. Creole, however, is much further removed from English than are Aboriginal English dialects, with greater grammatical and lexical divergency from English than dialects of English have.

4. More important than linguistic considerations are socio-linguistic ones. What are people's attitudes to the written form of the language? Etymological spellings have been used in popular writings such as Gunn's *Little Black Princess* and Lockwood's *I, The Aboriginal*. Such an orthography would support the erroneous view of Europeans that Creole is a debased, broken, or at best, quaint dialect of English. (See Appendix 3.2 at the end of this chapter for an example of an etymological orthography as compared with a phonemic orthography.)

3.2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of a Phonemic Orthography

The advantages of a phonemic orthography are:

1. It is an orthography which is designed specifically to fit the language and therefore avoids the problems involved in trying to make one language 'fit' the system of another, as well as avoiding the inherent problems of the English system.
2. It is in line with the criteria of maximum representation of speech and thus leads to an easier road to literacy.
3. It reduces the negative socio-political implications by not making the Creole appear as if it were a broken English.
4. It should aid in clearly differentiating English and Creole to Creole speakers. This will avoid readers' confusion.

The disadvantages of a phonemic orthography are:

1. Many Europeans do not seem to like it since it makes it more difficult for them to 'understand' it. (Though in actual fact it should reduce the chances of misunderstandings by helping the European not to interpret in terms of English vocabulary meanings.)

2. People have to be taught to read. Even those who are fluent in English literacy cannot fluently read Creole in a phonemic orthography until they have spent some time learning how to do so (i.e. they have to learn the symbol-sound relationship particular to Creole). (But with an etymological orthography there is a lot of, if not more, relearning or transferring to do for one to read Creole with Creole pronunciations and intonations instead of English ones.)

3. There are problems because of the continuum nature of Creole. The Creole word for 'snake' can be pronounced five ways: *jineg*, *jinek*, *sinek*, *sineik*, and *sneik*.

3.2.3 Considerations for a Phonemic Orthography

Several considerations must be kept in mind in developing an orthography. As Leeding and Gudschinsky (1974:27) have pointed out, 'the orthography should be chosen to make learning to read as easy as possible for the beginner and also to allow the experienced reader to skim and to read new material smoothly'.

It would seem that the development of an orthography for a continuum creole is dependent upon answering the questions: What 'point' on the continuum should be selected as the 'norm'? Which heavy to light variety of speech should be the 'standard'?

Because of the diversity of socio-linguistic backgrounds of the speakers of Creole, another question often raised is: What segment of the population should the orthography be slanted towards? Should it be slanted towards children and those adults whose speech has undergone little levelling towards the light end? If so, for bilingual speakers and those whose Creole has been levelled greatly, the orthography will result in confusion from underdifferentiation of phonemes or not distinguishing enough sounds. But if it's slanted towards literate bilinguals whose Creole has undergone a high degree of levelling, speakers with little levelling (particularly non-literates) may have difficulty with reading due to overdifferentiation of phonemes or distinguishing too many sounds.

On the subject of overdifferentiation and underdifferentiation, Smalley (1963b:10-11) notes:

Overdifferentiation, when consistently applied, does not usually present a serious reading problem, at least if it is not too extensive. The reader can usually be taught more than one symbol for the same pronunciation. The greater difficulty with over-differentiation for the native speaker comes in spelling.

. . . underdifferentiation of the phonemic structure of the language causes a reading problem if the distinctions which are ignored or confused carry an important functional load. If they do not, or if context helps to carry the load, underdifferentiation may not be at all serious . . . some underdifferentiation may be not only permissible but desirable in practical orthographies.

An alternative to the establishment of an orthography based on a given speech variety is to develop an orthography that is basically capable of handling a full differentiation of sounds used in Creole and allowing writers to write as they speak.

Sharpe (1974:20) has suggested that 'it may be quite workable in any case to allow more freedom of spelling in creole than in English in advanced reading materials - after all it is only comparatively recently (post-Shakespeare) that standardised spelling irrespective of pronunciation has become such a custom in English (and this custom is happily violated by good authors representing dialect differences on paper)'. (For an English example, see Xavier Herbert's *Poor Fellow My Country*.)

A literate, according to Gudschinsky (1973:5), is a person who 'in a language that he speaks, can read and understand anything he would have understood if it had been spoken to him; and who can write, so that it can be read, anything that he can say'. Most speakers vary along a wide range of the continuum, both in speaking and hearing, and should be able to control the same range in reading.

Though Creole involves continuum variation, what Balint (1973:13) says regarding regional dialectal variation of Tok Pisin may be worth noting: 'I have always disagreed with those Pidgin scholars who believe in the strict standardization of Melanesian Pidgin orthography. It seems to me that the most practical and at the same time scientifically feasible method of recording the various spoken forms of the language is through strict adherence to a general phonetic principle. This principle is quite simply the faithful recording in writing of all regional dialect variants of the language.'

3.3 THE CREOLE ORTHOGRAPHY

The development of a Creole orthography began in 1973 shortly after the Prime Minister of Australia announced the Government's new policy of bilingual education. A small amount of work had previously been done by Margaret Sharpe (then a member of SIL and a Research Fellow at the University of Queensland) and Mary Harris (of the Church Missionary Society) at Ngukurr in 1967. Nothing was done in the intervening period.

Work was carried out in 1973 initially by Sandefur, with an increasing amount of involvement by Sharpe. From 1973 until the end of 1975, the orthography was developed by Sandefur and Sharpe with Creole speaker involvement limited to testing.

In 1976, two Creole speakers, David Nangan:golod Jentian (school teacher from Bamyili) and his brother, Danny Marmina Jentian (head of literature production at Bamyili School), became involved in the orthography development. Nangan:golod had had some linguistic training as part of his teacher training, and Marmina was being taught to edit Creole texts for publication.

By mid 1976, several Creole speakers from Ngukurr School had also become involved in the orthography development under the direction of Warren Hastings (school teacher with some linguistic training). Sandefur and Hastings were encouraging Creole speaker involvement in the orthography development and coordination between the Bamyili and Ngukurr dialects.

In September of the same year, David Zorc of the School of Australian Linguistics became involved. During that month, ten Creole speakers from Ngukurr studied linguistics under Zorc and others, four of whom were working specifically on the Creole orthography.

In November 1976, a concerted effort was made to sort out some of the problems with the orthography and coordinate orthography development between Ngukurr and Bamyili. The School of Australian Linguistics and the Summer Institute of Linguistics cooperated with the Bamyili and Ngukurr Schools in holding a four-week Creole Writers Course. The course was held on site at Ngukurr under the direction of Zorc. Six Creole speakers from Bamyili, including Marmina, and six to nineteen from Ngukurr participated.

The majority decision of the Creole Writers Course was a Creole orthography that gives near maximum representation of significant sounds but allows for underdifferentiation in spelling.

There are 38 letters and diagraphs in the orthography: 27 consonants, 7 vowels, and 4 diphthongs.

There are 16 consonant letters: *b, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, w,* and *y*; and 11 consonant diagraphs: *ly, ng, ny, rd, rl, rn, rr, rt, sh, th,* and *tj*. (See Chart 3.1 on page 62.)

There are 7 vowels represented in the orthography, 2 with diacritics.

Chart 3.2. Vowels

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e	e:	o
Low	e/a	a	o:

There are 4 diphthongs:

<i>ai</i>	low central to high front
<i>oi</i>	mid back to high front
<i>ei</i>	mid front to high front
<i>au</i>	low central to high back

In addition to the letters and diagraphs, five spelling conventions were decided upon:

1. Words are spelt the way one speaks, regardless of dialect, idiolect or range on the continuum: 'we' *mibala* at Bamyili, *melabat* at Ngukurr, and *mela* at Elsey; 'sleep' *jilib, jilip, silip, slip* heavy to light range on the continuum.

2. Proper nouns may be spelt as in the original language or as pronounced in Creole: *Roper River* ~ *Ropa Riba*; *Katherine* ~ *Gajarran*; *Injai* ~ *Hodgson River* ~ *Hadsan Riba*.

3. Words commonly used in forming compound words should be spelt consistently: *taim* 'time', *dinataim* 'lunchtime, noon',

Chart 3.1.1. Consonants

	Bi- labial	Labio- dental	Inter- dental	Alveo- olar	Retro- flexed	Alveo- palatal	Lamino- palatal	Velar	Glottal
vcls	p		t		rt		tj	k	
Stops									
vcd	b		d		rd		j	g	
vcls						tj			
Affricates									
vcd						j			
vcls		f	th	s		sh			h
Fricatives									
vcd		b	th	s		s			
Nasals	m			n	rn	ny		ng	
Laterals				l	rl	ly			
Rhotic				rr	r				
Semi- Consonants	w				r	y			

(NB: 'vcls' means the sound is voiceless; 'vcd' means it is voiced.)

longtain 'a long time ago'; *dei* 'day', *deitaim* 'day time', *tudeina* 'right now'.

4. Reduplication of a word may be indicated either by doubling the word or by placing a 2 at the end of the word: *olmen* 'old man', *olmenolmen* ~ *olmen2* 'old men'; *shabala* 'sharp', *shabalashabala* ~ *shabala2* 'very sharp'; *wok* 'to walk', *wokwok* ~ *wok2* 'walking'.

5. Capitalization and punctuation are basically as practiced in English.

3.4 EVALUATION OF THE ORTHOGRAPHY

The following evaluation of the Creole orthography is made in terms of the five basic criteria given in Section 3.1.

3.4.1 Maximum Motivation

Smalley's discussion of this criterion is limited to the question of whether or not the orthography being developed should be in the script of the national language. The Creole orthography utilizes the Roman script as does English. Though the Creole speakers involved in developing the Creole orthography were exposed to other types of script, none were given serious consideration. There was concern, however, that Creole not look like English, but that it have an identity of its own. Hence the rejection of an etymological orthography.

Maximum motivation should also arise out of the critical involvement of a number of Creole speakers in the development of the orthography. The Creole orthography has become an Aboriginal affair, not another European project.

3.4.2 Maximum Representation of Speech

It is in this area that Creole has its greatest problems. It is desirable for the orthography to symbolize every sound that is psychologically significant to Creole speakers. Creole speakers who are not sophisticated English speakers and readers tend to perceive Creole as having fewer significant sounds than do bilinguals, even though both speak overlapping ranges of the Creole continuum. Any orthography will inevitably overdifferentiate for the one group and underdifferentiate for the other.

Sounds in Creole that are overdifferentiated at the heavy end of the continuum include: /f, th, s, sh, h, e:, o:, ei, au/. For the extreme heavy end /p, t, rt, tj, k/ are also overdifferentiated.

Sounds that are underdifferentiated for the light end of the continuum include: /v, z/. For the extreme light end /ɛ, ʒ, ɪ, ə, ʌ/ are also underdifferentiated.

3.4.3 Maximum Ease of Learning

This criterion can really only be evaluated by applying the orthography in literacy classes. At the time of writing (August 1977), this had not yet been done on a full scale. There have been, however, several 'pilot' classes: a small group of semi-literate teaching assistants, several children with severe reading problems, and a grade 6 boy with no previous school experience. These projects have shown encouraging results.

Observation of English literates starting to read Creole in both formal and informal situations has also been positive. Fluent English readers have been able to transfer into Creole without assistance. Others, however, have needed some assistance, particularly with vowels.

The unique difference in the Creole orthography from other orthographies is the variability of spelling along the continuum. This certainly provides for a wide range of stylistic possibilities for Creole writers who have a literary feeling. In addition, the variability of spelling - which, it should be stressed, is consistent in sound-symbol relationship - allows for the development of initial reading materials geared to the idiolects of individual students. 'The material given for reading should approximate the reader's oral language as closely as possible' (Genat 1976:44).

The variability of spelling also eliminates the need to spend hours of time teaching spelling. Once a person learns the orthography with its consistent sound to symbol relationships, they spell the way they speak.

3.4.4 Maximum Transfer

Though the primary concern for maximum transfer is between Creole and English, consideration is also given for transfer between Creole and other Aboriginal languages. Where the sounds of Creole are common with other Aboriginal languages, the orthography is in line with the recommendations of Leeding and Gudschinsky (1974) for a uniform orthography for Aboriginal languages.

With regard to vowels, Leeding and Gudschinsky (1974:29) recommend that

the five symbols used in English [be used] . . . Problems in transition into English cannot be avoided because of the two distinctly different vowel systems. Use of the recommended symbols, however, will make reading in the vernacular as easy as possible and should help to keep problems to a minimum when transfer is made to English.

The problems Creole speakers may have in vowel transfer to English should be the same as those experienced by Aborigines elsewhere, and the solutions to the problems should be similar. A benefit for Creole speakers who know a traditional Aboriginal language should be vowel transfer to that language without difficulties.

With consonants, transfer to traditional languages should also be near automatic. The single letter consonants should transfer to English without difficulty except where English is inconsistent while the diagraphs are susceptible to being confused with English consonant clusters.

3.4.5 Maximum Ease of Reproduction

Though several characters which do not come on common typewriters were considered, all except one of them; the 'tail-n' (ŋ), were dismissed. ŋ was liked very much by Creole speakers, but because it is not available on common typewriters, *ng* is used in printing. ŋ, however, is allowed in cursive writing: ŋarni ~ *ngarni* 'What now?'. ~

Several 'above the letter' diacritics were considered but not accepted because of the need to back space and hence slow down production. The one diacritic used (:.) necessitates carriage shifting and hence is not ideal, but its frequency of occurrence is low.

APPENDIX 3.1

SYMBOLS USED FOR SPELLING AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH SOUNDS

This appendix is taken with slight modifications from Leeding (1977).

It is well known that sounds and spelling do not correlate in English in many words. This list shows the complexity to be faced by a person learning to read and write. The first column gives the English sound contrast, the second gives the alternative spellings with examples of these in the final column.

Stops

p	p pp	pale, tap, lamp, spin copper
b	b bb	bale, tab, timber cobber
t	t tt ed ght	tale, mat, stint, dreamt matter, putt stepped straight
d	d dd ed ld	dale, mad, hinder madder, odd stabbed, tinned could
k	c k ck q ch	call, attic, uncle kill, tank, skin, wrinkle tack, bicker queue toothache, stomach, school, chiton
g	g gg	gale, tag, finger bigger

Affricates

tʃ	ch	chin, rich
	tch	catch, latching
dʒ	j	jam
	g	gin, cage, raging
	dg	ridge, cadging

Fricatives

f	f	fail, life, safer
	ff	puff, suffer
	ph	photo, graph
	gh	laugh
	lf	half
v	v	value, savour, live
	lv	halve
θ	th	thin, path, ether
ð	th	this, either, loathe
s	s	sale, us, closer, cats
	ss	fuss, pussy
	se	use (noun)
	sc	discipline
	st	castle, listen
	c	cede, receipt, face
	ps	psalm, psychology
z	z	zip, razor
	zz	fizz, huzzy
	ze	daze
	s	is, phase, dogs, use (verb), eyes, days, cosy
ʃ	sh	shawl, fish, rushing
	ch	machine
	s	sure
	ss	pressure
	si	tension
	ssi	mission
	ci	vicious
	ce	ocean
	ti	nation
	sc	conscious

z	z	azure
	s	closure
	si	erosion
	g	mirage (some people only)
h	h	hale, how, ahoy
	wh	who, whole

Nasals

m	m	male, sum, camp, humour
	mm	hammer
	mb	comb
	mp	pumpkin (some speakers)
	lm	calm
n	n	nail, sun, hand, honour
	nn	runner
	kn	knife, kneel
	gn	gnat, gnome
	nd	sandwich (some speakers)
nj	ni	onion
	ny	canyon
	n	new
ng	ng	sing, singer, distinguish
	n	finger, think, distinction

Laterals

l	l	low, halo, only
	ll	call, millet
	sl	aisle, island
	le	bottle
lj	lli	million, stallion
	ly	halyard

Semi-consonants

w	w	wail, away, twin
	wh	whale, when, why (some speakers)
	u	quail, quick, aqua

r	r rr wr	rail, arid arrow write
y	y	yale, lawyer

Vowels

i	ee ea e ie ei y	feet, bee each, peat cafeteria, area piece, siege, believe receive, neice pity, any
ɪ	i	it, pit
ɛ	e ea ai ay a ie	pet, etch, mend dead said says any, area friend
ɚ	ear er ir ur urr	early, earth, heard pert, defer bird, third further, scurvy furry
ʌ	u a er o oo ou	utter, putt lava, about rubber, cover money, love blood tough
ɑ	a ar ear	after, father, last art, barter, mark heart
u	u oo ou	put, pull hood, wood, wool could
o	or a ar aw	born, port, organ, mentor water, fall wart dawn, prawn, shawl

	au	caught, taught
	ou	sought, fought
	our	court
	oa	board
	ore	bored, encored
ɔ	o	pot, otter, on
	a	what
	ou	cough
æ ^l	a	ate, cake, wave, dale
	ai	bait, aim
	ei	eight, neighbour
	ay	bay, stray, crayfish
ʌ ^l	i	ice, bite, child
	ie	tie, cried
	y	my, try
	uy	buy
	igh	sigh, light
	eigh	height
u ^l	ou	out, pout
	ow	now, flower
	ough	plough, bough
o ^u	ow	bow, sow
	oa	oat, boat, toast
	o	no, rode, revoke
	oe	toe
	ew	sew
ɔ ^l	oi	oil, boil
	oy	boy, coy
	uoy	buoy
i ^u	ew	few, chew
	eu	feud
	eau	beauty
	u	utility, student, use
	you	you
	ue	fuel, avenue
ə ^u	oo	ooze, boot, boo, loop
	ou	soup, recoup
	o	move
	ue	clue
	u	fluke, rude
	ew	crew, stewed
	wo	two

APPENDIX 3.2

EXAMPLE OF ETYMOLOGICAL AND PHONEMIC ORTHOGRAPHIES

The following is an extract from a Creole story by Jentian (1977:64-65). The extract occurs below first in an etymological orthography. A free English translation is then given. Both have been prepared by Sandefur. Finally, the story is given in the phonemic Creole orthography as published.

Etymological Orthography:

Well, long another country, all the bandicoot been sit-down. Him and him wife been no-good-binjey too-much two-fellow no-more been have-him piccaninny.

One-day two-fellow been listen gammon kangaroo been have-him lot-of piccaninny. Two-fellow been have-to go long kangaroo belong ask-him kangaroo belong two-fellow piccaninny. Two-fellow been go and two-fellow been come-out long that kangaroo camp.

When that kangaroo been look two-fellow, him-been ask-him two-fellow and him-been say, 'What-name belong you-and-two-fellow been come here?' that kangaroo been say.

And that bandicoot been say, 'Well, me-and-two-fellow been come belong ask-him you belong two-fellow piccaninny, too-much me-and-two-fellow no-more got-him any piccaninny.'

English Translation:

The Bandicoots lived in another country. Mr. Bandicoot and his wife were sad because they had no children.

One day they heard that a kangaroo had a lot of children. They decided they would have to go to the kangaroo and ask him for two children. So they went to the kangaroo's camp.

When the kangaroo saw them, he asked them, 'Why have you come here?'

And Mr. Bandicoot said, 'Well, we've come to ask you for two children, because we don't have any.'

Creole Phonemic Orthography:

Wel, langa naja kantri, ola Bendigut bin jidan. Im en im-waif bin nogudbinji dumaji tubala nomo bin abum biginini.

Wandei tubala bin lisin geman keingurru bin abum loda biginini. Tubala bin labda go langa keingurru bla askim keingurru blanga tubala biginini. Tubala bin go en tubala bin kamat langa jad keingurru kemp.

Wen jad keingurru bin luk tubala, imin askim tubala en imin sei, 'Wanem bla yundubala bin kam iya?' jad keingurru bin sei.

En jad Bendigut bin sei, 'Wel, mindubala bin kam bla askim yu bla tubala biginini, dumaji mindubala nomo gadem eni biginini.'

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